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Reframing the Image of the Owner

A Narrative Approach to Website Localization

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ABBREVIATIONS

HEL	www.hel.fi (City of Helsinki)
JKL	www.jkl.fi (City of Jyväskylä)
LPR	www.lappeenranta.fi (City of Lappeenranta)
LUT	www.lut.fi (Lappeenranta University of Technology)
OUKA	www.ouka.fi (City of Oulu)
OUY	www.oulu.fi/yliopisto/ (University of Oulu)
POL	www.poliisi.fi (Finnish Police)
UVA	www.uva.fi (University of Vaasa)
VAMK	www.puv.fi (Vaasa University of Applied Sciences)

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ABSTRACT

Tässä tutkielmassa tarkastellaan kuinka 9 suomalaista internet-sivustoa kuvaa omistajaansa suomen- ja englanninkielisissä kieliversioissaan. Tutkittaviksi valikoituivat neljän kaupungin (Helsinki, Jyväskylä, Lappeenranta ja Oulu), neljän oppilaitoksen (Lappeenrannan, Oulun ja Vaasan yliopistot sekä Vaasan Ammattikorkeakoulu) ja lisäksi Suomen Poliisin internet-sivustot. Kaupungit valittiin pääsääntöisesti siksi, että ne sijaitsevat hajautetusti ympäri Suomea, ja oppilaitosten valintaperuste oli vaihtelevat koulutustarjonnat. Poliisi edustaa Suomea kokonaisuutena.

Tutkimus pohjaa Mona Bakerin viitoittamaan näkemykseen narratiiviteorian soveltuvuudesta käännostutkimukseen. Koska teorian analyysin kohteena on narratiivi, rakensin tutkimuksen alussa mallin, jolla internet-sivustojen tekstimassoista voidaan valikoida yhtenevä tutkimusmateriaali. Mallia soveltamalla varsinaiseksi materiaaliksi valikoituivat sivustojen päävalikot ja sisältösivujen yhtenäiset, kerronnalliset tekstit. Materiaalista tutkittiin Bakerin ehdottamien neljän käännostrategian, ”ajan ja paikan muokkaus” (temporal & spatial framing) ”valikoiva sopeuttaminen” (selective appropriation), ”nimeäminen” (labelling) ja ”osapuolten uudelleenasetointi” (repositioning of participants) mukaisia tapauksia. Oletuksena oli, että käännostrategioiden mukaiset muutokset sivuston päävalikossa korreloivat sisältösivujen muutosten kanssa.

Tutkielman tulokset kuitenkin paljastavat, ettei internet-sivustojen valikoista voida päätellä sisältösivujen samankaltaisuutta. Sen sijaan eroavuudet valikoissa kielivät eroista myös sisältösivuilla. Lisäksi löytyi viite, että mitä lähempänä valtakunnallista keskiarvoa kaupungissa tai oppilaitoksessa oleva prosentuaalinen ulkomaalaisten osuus on, sitä samankaltaisempi kuva sivuston omistajasta annetaan sen eri kieliversioissa. Vastaavasti poikkeama keskiarvosta kasvattaa eroavaisuuksien määrää. Analyysi paljasti myös, että keskenään erilaisten kieliversioiden välillä kuva sivuston omistajasta rakentuu useiden päällekkäisten käännostrategioiden käytöstä, eikä niinkään yksittäisistä strategioiden ilmentymistä.

KEYWORDS: institutional translation, localization, narrative theory, (re)framing

1 INTRODUCTION

In contemporary Finland it is important for a public organization to provide different language options of their website. This is due to the fact that there are multilingual target groups, such as immigrants and exchange students, seeking information about, for example, their local services in a city or educational institutions. The number of the available languages on a Finnish corporate website varies, although often one of them is English since it has an undeniable status as *lingua franca* (Aaltonen 2006: 189–190). Intuitively it would make sense that the language versions of a website would present the exact same information about the owner of the site, and therefore the parallel versions would be simple translations. However, as will be presented in this paper that is not necessarily the case.

With a brief glance at the website of Helsinki, the capital city of Finland, it becomes clear that the contents between language versions may be significantly different. The main content on the Finnish front page (or homepage) of www.hel.fi site is titled *Uutisia* [news] and the equivalent on the English version is *Current and news* (HEL 2013: homepage¹). Although the very similar topics suggest that the contents in both versions might also be the same, the actual news items and issues presented within the blocks below these topics have hardly any similarities between the two language versions. The first item in the Finnish version is “Viittomakielinen verkkosivusto julkaistu ruotsiksi” (Version of the website in Swedish sign language published) and in the English version “Partygoers discovered the night metro” (www.hel.fi cited 17.1.2014). The same phenomenon occurs on throughout the other pages of the City of Helsinki website (see a short example in Appendix 2). As the language versions of a website can be so different, one could ask is it even sensible to consider them translations?

¹ References to exact web pages are made with the abbreviation of the website, year or the exact date of citation and the title of the referred page. Unless the reference is pointed at the homepage of the site, the title of the page is italicised as in the following: (ABBR 2013: *page title*).

The whole concept of translation is proven to be difficult to define. Baker and Pérez-Gonzales (2011: 39) provide a definition in which translation is *linguistic mediation* between languages. Linguistic mediation simply means that a piece of text or utterance is transferred (rewritten or orally interpreted) into another text or utterance in some other language. It should, however, be noted that in another publication Baker (2009: xviii) has argued that if the definition was to be used in a global scale rather than merely in the Western cultural context, the variety of languages in question must be broadened to include other than written and spoken languages such as, for example, African drum languages. For the sake of convenience, this present study concentrates only on written languages since the objects of the study are websites, and practically all conventional websites provide the bulk of information in written form.

Another important concept within translation studies is *equivalence*. As was mentioned in the opening paragraph above, the existence of equivalence between the language versions of a website may be ambiguous. A useful but not entirely unproblematic definition renders equivalence to a mere relationship between two texts (Kenny 2009: 96). Therefore it is possible to argue that any two texts that are somehow parallel or linked with each other can be considered a source text and a translation. Although such reasoning may seem rather vague it is useful in the case of websites. In this present study, the web pages (or textual items on the pages) that are parallel by being the same option on different language versions of the website will be treated as equivalent translational pairs.

Even if translation and equivalence as presented above may appear ambiguous in the context of websites, much sense is gained when translation is examined as a part of a larger concept of *localization*. Localization is defined in the *Routledge Encyclopedia of Translation Studies* to concern particularly the adaptation of *digital* content to other languages (Schäler 2009: 157). As websites are digital content, the English language version of a website is considered in this thesis to be a localized version of the Finnish original. However, in the case of websites in particular, there may be a whole range of elements that need to be localized alongside the translation of textual items (Pym 2010: 3–4). For example, a localized web page may have to be adapted to meet local colour

conventions and/or all pictures may have to be switched according to the norms of the targeted cultural and language area. As there are obviously various other tasks in the localization process than the plain translation, the role of an individual translator needs further examination.

The translator becomes assimilated into a larger entity of a *translating agent* in the localization process performed in an institutional setting. The translating agent is an entity that includes various separate actors who conduct the localization as a joint team effort (Pym 2010: 8–10; Kang 2009: 143–144). An individual translator is only a part of such larger collaborative work in which the institution itself has an active role in defining the output of the localization (Kang 2009: 144). Therefore, as the translating agent is the representative of the whole institution, it is useful in general to consider the owner of the website as the “translator” (or localizer) of the language versions of the site. Furthermore, as it is the owner of the site whose discourse is mediated through the website, the purpose of the site is obviously to convey the message of the owner most effectively to the target audience. Therefore, in the localization process of a website it is important not to forget the overall communicative functions of the Internet and websites.

The Internet in general and websites in particular are a communicative channel in which the use of language has an interesting role. Even though the communication on the Internet can be more easily dialogic than, for example, on a TV- or a radio broadcast, this present study concentrates on the monologic uses of websites. Such uses are, for example, marketing a product or a service, or branding a whole company or an institution (Janoschka 2004: 83–84; Molenaar 2012: 107). In any case, the language used on the site and the lingual choices correlate directly with the image of the owner of the website (Kelly-Holmes 2005: 80–82). Combining these communicational functions with the concepts of localization processes, it seems reasonable to assume that, against the initial intuition, the different language versions of a website may very well provide differing images of the owner of the site. That assumption will be the basis for the research question of this study: how localizing modifies the presentation of the owner of a website on the site’s different language versions?

There are some comparative studies conducted on the language versions of institutional websites. One of them is by Junglas and Watson (2004) who have compared a selection of U.S. and German websites with the focus on the content and functionality of the pages. Their main findings show that in addition to national culture also the national market situation is a factor that needs to be considered in localization of a website. Those findings are partly related with Sun's (2001) study which is a usability survey that studies cultural markers in two localized corporate websites. Sun (2001: 101) emphasizes, for example, the importance of cultural sensibility and a careful target group analysis that should be taken into account in localization processes. However, neither of the abovementioned studies concentrate on the image of the owner of the site at such length as this present study does.

To examine the presentation of the owner of a website, nine Finnish websites by public organizations were chosen as the data of this study. The sites are owned by the Police of Finland, four cities (Helsinki, Jyväskylä, Lappeenranta and Oulu), and four educational institutions (universities of Lappeenranta, Oulu and Vaasa, and Vaasa University of Applied Sciences). All the websites have English as one of their language options which will be considered in this thesis as the general source of information for non-Finnish speakers² (immigrants, exchange students). The chosen cities and educational institutions report on their sites that they have different amounts of immigrants or exchange students, ranging from 2 % (JKL 2013) to 11,8 % (VAMK 2013). The average number of immigrants in the whole of Finland is 5,2 % (Statistics Finland 2013b). One of the selection criteria was also the owner's geographical location. The intention was to avoid too much concentration on any specific area of Finland. Additionally, the Police of Finland represent the non-regional whole of Finland.

The aim of this study is to find out whether a localized language version of a website present different or similar image of the owner of the site, and the possibility of deducting it from the textual content on the homepage(s) of the site. The hypothesis is

² Of course, not all immigrants are English speakers or even understand English any more than Finnish. However, as there is no data available about specifically English speakers, these numbers are used since it is assumed that in any case the majority of the foreign people use English as the *lingua franca*.

that the differences or similarities appearing already on the homepages of parallel language versions correlate with the differences or similarities on the parallel content on the subpages of the site. Additionally, possible patterns among similar types of owners of sites (cities, educational institutions) are examined. However, no patterns whatsoever are expected to be found since every website is constructed as an individual project with no relation to other sites. Also, the percentage of foreign population in the city or the institution is examined as a possible factor in the results.

In order to test the hypotheses, the websites were examined with the help of narrative theory. The object of the analysis in the socio-narrative theory in translation studies, pioneered by Mona Baker (2006), is a narrative. Therefore, the first phase of the research was to identify narratives from the chosen data. The identification was done with my own general model for identifying textual narratives on websites. With the model the material was delineated to include comparable menu items of the main menus of the websites, and texts on the subpages of the sites. The second phase of the research was to analyse the (re)framing strategies used on both the menu items and the subpage texts on a single website. The four (re)framing strategies Baker (2006) has introduced are *temporal and spatial framing*, *framing through selective appropriation*, *framing by labelling* and *framing by repositioning participants* in the narrative. The uses of these strategies are discussed further in section 1.2 and in Chapter 3. The final phase of the research was conducted by comparing the results of the previous phases between the sites.

The material and method of this study will be presented in more detail in the following two sections. Some additional information related generally to this present study is provided in sections 1.3 and 1.4. Chapter 2 is a discussion on the communicative nature and construction of websites with the focus on the relation between the owner of the site and the intended target audience(s) of the site. Chapter 3 represents the framework of the narrative theory in translation studies applied in this thesis. The fourth chapter is the report of the analysis which is divided into three sections. Section 4.1 presents my model for identifying textual narratives on websites. Section 4.2 presents my proposition for viewing the unit of analysis, that is, narratives, as a three-layered

structure. Section 4.3, which is further divided into three subsections, presents the primary findings of this study which will provide the answers to the research question and hypotheses. The last chapter, chapter five, is the conclusion of the study.

1.1 Narratives on websites

The data of this study consisted of nine Finnish websites and their Finnish and English language versions. For the purposes of this study the owner of the site was required to be a Finnish public organization that actively interacts with international (English speaking) people. That requirement ensured that the Finnish version of the site could be assumed to be the original and the English version a localized version. The chosen websites included the cities of Helsinki (HEL), Jyväskylä (JKL), Lappeenranta (LPR) and Oulu (OUKA), and the universities of Lappeenranta (LUT), Oulu (OUY), Vaasa (UVA) and Vaasa University of Applied Sciences (VAMK). All of the cities report on their website having immigrants. Helsinki has the largest amount of English speaking population (7,6 %) and Jyväskylä has the smallest (2 %). The percentages of exchange students in the educational institutions range from 4,1 % in Lappeenranta University of Technology to 11,8 % in Vaasa University of Applied Sciences. In addition, since one website was required to represent the average 5,2 % of immigrants in Finland (Statistics Finland 2013b), the website of Finnish Police (POL) was chosen to be part of the data.

One of the criteria for choosing the cities was their location and size. The cities included in the data of this study are among the 15 largest in Finland, with Helsinki being the largest (population 603 968) and Vaasa being the smallest (population 65 674) (Statistics Finland 2013a). The cities are located around Finland, which ensured that concentration on any specific region was avoided. The same criterion of decentralized location applies to the chosen educational institutions. However, more important criterion than the location of the universities was their distinctive fields of studies. LUT concentrates mostly on engineering sciences whereas in UVA most of the students study economics. OUY is the most multidisciplinary of the universities with a variety of

medicine and health sciences, engineering, humanities and economics. VAMK's fields are social and health, engineering, business and computer sciences. VAMK is the only University of Applied Sciences among the chosen educational institutions which means that its status within academia is different from the other chosen universities. That difference does not, however, have particular significance in this study and therefore VAMK is treated as an equal within the group of educational institutions.

An essential part of delineating the data was identifying the material in it. The material of this study consisted of narratives that were extracted from the data with the help of my general model for identifying textual narratives on websites. Moderately simplified representation of the model with the data of this study applied to it is presented in Figure 1 below.

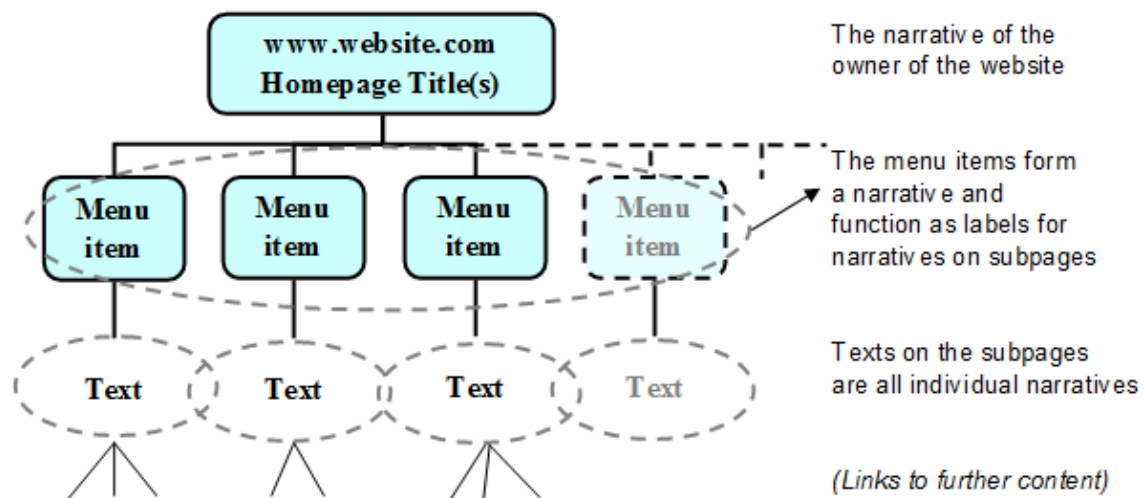


Figure 1. The narrative structure of websites used to identify narratives from the data

The full general model for identifying narratives on websites, and the application of it used in this thesis, will be presented and discussed in more detail in section 4.1. However, the main points of the illustration above (Figure 1) will be shortly discussed in this section below.

With the help of the model for identifying narratives on websites, the narrative material of this study was identified in two particular locations on the websites. First, a narrative is formed by the plain textual items of the static main menu of the site. Figure 2 below illustrates a typical main menu in the material of this study.

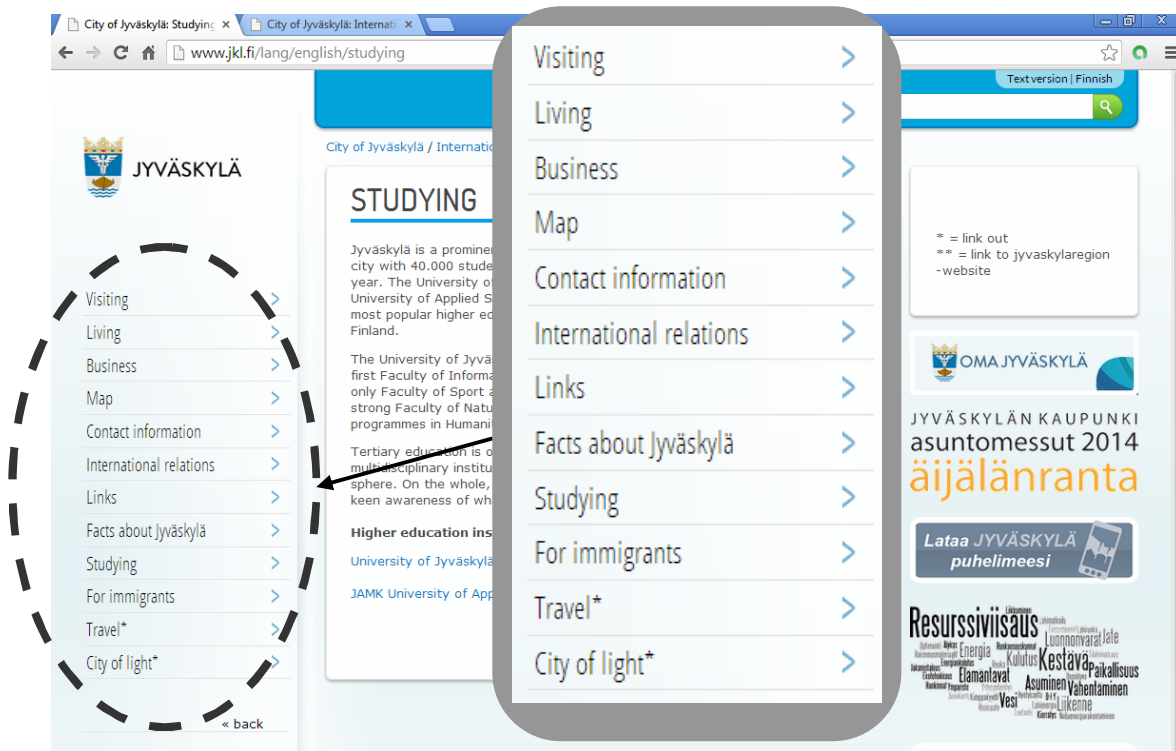


Figure 2. The static main menu on an English subpage (*Studying*) of the website of the City of Jyväskylä (caption taken 10.3.2014)

Figure 2 highlights the main menu of the English version of the City of Jyväskylä website. In the highlighted menu the items *Visiting*, *Living*, *Business*, *Map*, *Contact information* etc. are parts that together form the textual whole of this particular menu narrative. A similar type of a menu narrative was found, of course, also on the parallel Finnish version of the City of Jyväskylä website³, and consecutively on every website and language versions included in the data.

³ As an extended example, main menus of both language versions (English and Finnish) of the City of Jyväskylä website are represented in Appendix 1.

The second part of the material consisted of larger textual bodies on the subpages of the websites. Figure 3 below illustrates a typical subpage in the material of this study.



Figure 3. The content text on a subpage (*Studying*) of the English language version of the website of the City of Jyväskylä (caption taken 10.3.2014)

The Figure 3 highlights with the gray dashed-line the content text on the subpage of the website of the City of Jyväskylä. The texts on the subpages were required to narrate coherently something about the main topic of the subpage rather than presenting small pieces of scattered information on several short lines or paragraphs. In any case, the length of the analysed texts, of course, varied according to the website and the language version examined⁴.

⁴ As an extended example, excerpts of the analysed texts on the parallel Finnish and English subpages of the City of Helsinki website (HEL 2013: *Culture and Libraries/Kulttuuri ja kirjastot*) are represented in the Appendix 2.

As was stated earlier in this section, the main menus in the material were required to be static. They were static in that sense that their textual content remained exactly the same regardless whether the website user was viewing the homepage of the site or the subpages of the site. Including only static menus in the data delineated the number of subpages to be the same as the number of items in the menu. The number of main menu items on one language version of a website in the material ranged from 3 to 17. As the number of subpages with their parallels on both language versions grew relatively large (a total of 114 pages within the data set of this study), only one page per language version of a website was chosen for the final analysis (a total of 18 pages). The complete list of the analysed subpages is in Appendix 3. The next section presents the method how the material was analysed in this study.

1.2 (Re)framing and comparing narratives on websites

The aim of this study was to investigate the Finnish and English language versions of websites and to find out if and how the representations of the owner of the site differ between the two language versions. The analysis of the material was conducted in two separate phases. The first phase of the analysis was to examine the (re)framing strategies used in the material. The (re)framing strategies, as introduced by Baker (2006), are *temporal and spatial framing*, *framing through selective appropriation*, *framing by labelling* and *repositioning of participants*. Those four strategies are shortly represented below, beginning with temporal and spatial framing. With the strategy of temporal and spatial framing the time and/or location of a narrative is altered in order to establish a new context that supports the new narrative (ibid.: 112). The opening sentences (example (1)) of the website of the City of Oulu illustrate how both the temporal and spatial information about the owner of the site are reframed.

- (1) The City of Oulu is the capital of northern Finland. (OUKA 2013: *Oulu Information*)

Oulun kaupungin perusti Kaarle IX vuonna 1605 mantereelle Linnansaarta ja linnaa vastapäätä. (OUKA 2013: *Oulu-tietoa*)

The City of Oulu was established by Kaarle IX in the year 1605 on the mainland opposite Linnansaari [Castle island] and the castle. (Back-translation)

The English version of the website presents information that depicts the present status and an overall location of the city within the country. On the contrary, the Finnish version presents details from the history of the city and the exact location within the city region. In other words, the narratives depict situations that are approximately 400 years apart and spatially the connections of the city to its surrounding areas are changed. The temporal and spatial reframing has modified the image of the city through different historical information and the connectedness of the city.

The (re)framing strategy of framing through selective appropriation means, for example, making additions and omissions into the narrative. An example of selective appropriation through addition is illustrated in example (2) below.

- (2) The residents of Lappeenranta have access to a wide variety of services. **The City of Lappeenranta provides health and care services, schools and day-care centres, technical, cultural, sports and recreation services.** (LPR 2013: *Services*, emphasis added)

Lappeenrannan kaupunki tarjoaa monipuolisia ja laadukkaita palveluita sekä kaupungin asukkaille ja yrityksille että tänne tuleville vierailijoille. (LPR 2013: *Palvelut*)

The City of Lappeenranta provides multifaceted services of good quality to both residents and businesses of the city and its visitors. (Back-translation)

The English version of the website lists explicitly the services provided in the city. On the contrary, the reader of the Finnish version has to implicitly assume the variety of the available services. Reframing the English version with addition, as represented in the

above example, modifies the image of the owner of the website by shaping the details defining it.

The last two strategies are closely related to each other. Framing by labelling refers to (re)naming any entity in a narrative which may, for example, in turn change the position of the participants in the narrative. The strategy of repositioning of participants changes, for example, who are “us and them” or how visible the narrator or author’s voice is in a text (Baker 2006: 122–132, 138–139). An example from the material of this study illustrates both, labelling and repositioning of participants, strategies: difference in the proximities of participants is made by reframing (renaming) a menu item “Yliopisto” [University] to “About Us” (UVA 2013). The “About Us” personifies the narrator and narrows considerably the distance between the narrator and the audience whereas “Yliopisto” [University] holds more official relationship between the participants. In this case the strategies of framing by labelling and repositioning participants have modified the image of the owner of the website through the connectedness of the participants of the narrative.

After examining instances of the four (re)framing strategies described briefly above, the assumptive hypothesis of this study could be tested in the second phase of the analysis. The second phase consisted of three separate steps. The first step was to compare how the material, the menu items and the subpage texts, were (re)framed within an individual website. The second step was to compare the results of the first step between separate websites. The third and last step was to compare the results of the first and second step within the two categories of websites, namely the group of cities and educational institutions. These steps covered the material thoroughly and provided plenty of data for drawing conclusions. The following section, however, presents a brief discussion on some complexities emerging in the general analysis of websites.

1.3 The fast evolution of the Internet

The updating pace of the Internet and related technologies is rapid. The speed of change is often described with the “folkloric” *Moore’s law* (Franklin 2012: 164). In short, the law predicts an exponential growth of the performance of electronic components and devices, first and foremost microchips. Microchip is the basis of all modern day electronic devices, and they can be found from such appliances as computers, cell phones, cars, toys and washing machines, to name a few. After all, Moore’s law is named after a co-founder of the world’s largest microchip maker today (Intel Corporation) Gordon Moore (Franklin 2012: 164; Jovanovic & Rousseau 2002: 1; Hanson 2000: 33). In the 1960s Moore observed a trend that the number of transistors on integrated circuits (microchips) doubled approximately every 18 months to two years (Jovanovic & Rousseau 2002: 1; Hanson 2000: 33). The observed trend has been more or less accurate up to date and the capacity of microchips will probably continue to grow at least some years into the future until the physical boundaries of manufacturing the chips on atomic level are reached (Hanson 2000: 34).

As the Moore’s law predicts, alongside computers the software with which, for example, websites are constructed becomes all the time faster and elaborate. Therefore it can be predicted that a top of the line website today may be completely outdated in only a few years time. An example of the updating pace of websites is the website of the home university of this present thesis (University of Vaasa, www.uva.fi). The UVA website has been updated twice to a completely new layout with some inevitable changes to the contents during the past seven years. Therefore, as Pym (2010: 12) and also Dann and Dann (2011: xv) state, a discussion on any area regarding the ever changing web might very well be already outdated when printed. Therefore also the risk of this study being outdated when published is apparent. However, the following section presents some studies that are at the moment still topical within the scope of this thesis.

1.4 Previous applications of narrative theory in translation studies

This section introduces very briefly how narrative theory has been used in other studies of translation. Harding (2012) summarizes in her article many of the works that have applied narrative theory after Baker's (2006) initial publication. The varied applications consist of textual analyses of printed and online texts such as books, novels, newspapers, theatre texts, paratexts, forum posts, online reportages, to name a few. The most interesting study from the point of view of this present thesis is Julie McDonough Dolmaya's (2010) *(Re)imagining Canada: Projecting Canada to Canadians through Localized Websites*. She has studied Canadian websites and their representation of the Canadians as a target group in advertisements. Although the data is very similar to that used in this thesis, the focus in McDonough's study is in the narratives of the receivers whereas this present research concentrates on the narratives of the senders. The profound difference between the two studies is, of course, bound to result in different findings and, more importantly, to broaden the understanding of how narratives work in website environment. Therefore, the following chapter describes the relevant aspects of the website environment from the point of view of this present study.

2 WEBSITES AND AUDIENCES

The Internet is a channel for communication between a sender and a receiver. Janoschka (2004: 86) states that there are many possible approaches and types of emphasis to communication processes over the Internet which will, however, only depict the same phenomenon from different angles. For example, Molenaar (2012: 107) lists communication as one of the four main functions of the Internet, and Janoschka (2004: 83–84) describes communication on the Internet being “interactive mass communication”. In any case, both views include the presumption that there is always a sender, a message and a receiver (or multiple receivers) involved in the communication process. Therefore, in terms of this present study, the owner of a website is the sender who uses the website to send a message to a designated receiver or a whole target audience. Furthermore, it can be assumed that the owner of the site has purposefully designed the linguistic choices of the website to support the delivery of the message. The participants and the language used on communication via websites are discussed in the following section 2.1. Section 2.2 examines what kind of effects the designing of the message has on some technical and structural aspects of a website.

2.1 Corporate websites for specific target audiences

It is common for a contemporary company, institution or a city to have a website and there are various reasons why they should have one. On the one hand, websites have a range of beneficial uses: they promote corporate visibility, spread press releases, making direct sales, offer customer support and technical assistance, to name but a few functions (Hamill 1997: 300). On the other hand, a website can create credibility and respectability to its owner (Kelly-Holmes 2005: 80). Moreover, there is a high probability that the target groups are already familiar with using the Internet and websites since the overall number of users is growing globally and also locally here in Finland (Internet World Stats 2013; Statistics Finland 2013c). Though, particularly in Finland the growth in website users occur only in the age groups above 55 since

practically all the younger people (above the age of 16) are already users of the Internet (Statistics Finland 2013c). Therefore, as there are many possible uses and benefits for having a website, and most people are likely to have the access to it, it could be argued that not having a website would in itself convey a negative image of the organization in question.

However, designing a website is not without risks. As Aaltonen (2006: 191) states, the lingual choices of a website are not only practical ones but they may also have an effect on the whole image of the company. Aaltonen (*ibid.*: 194) further points out that the chosen language must be suitable for the designated use. Although Aaltonen discusses the use of English as a lingua franca (ELF) and English as a Foreign Language (EFL), the idea can be expanded to any use of language on a website. In the extensive study on user focused translation, Suojanen, Koskinen and Tuominen (2012) endorse the idea that the language used will directly reflect the owner's views about the target audience(s). Therefore, the owner of a website has to be careful not to present a negative image of the intended audience through bad lingual choices, since it will further modify the image of the whole organization.

The views about the target audience are crucial for the image of the organization. The views can be formed with two basic possibilities. The first one is interviewing directly the members of the (future) target group which, however, may be difficult if the actual members of the audience are difficult to reach (Suojanen, Koskinen & Tuominen 2012: 54, 69). For example, in the case of a university exchange students are a potential target audience who may be physically located around the globe and therefore out of reach. The second possibility of forming the views about the target audience is to make mental projections or abstractions (in other words, making educated guesses) of the target audience (*ibid.*: 54–55). This latter possibility is easier and cheaper to use since it can be conducted within the personnel of the design group of the website. Regardless whether the views about the target audience are based on actual interaction or only on assumptions, the views are in any case coded into every lingual item on the site. The following section presents two of the common structural locations for the lingual items that will be examined in this study.

2.2 Technical and structural perspectives on the design of a website

There are several technical aspects that need to be taken into consideration when designing a website. Benun (2003: 12) advises to find out, for example, what kind of browsers and display settings and how fast Internet connections the users (i.e. target audiences) are likely to have. An optimal site loads quickly, has a clear appearance and comprehensible structure. The users must also find easily and fast what they are looking for. (Aaltonen 2006: 197–198; Benun 2003: 12.) Therefore, on the one hand, the website designer nowadays has to take into consideration the effects of, for example, the growing number of mobile devices, and on the other hand he/she must not forget the needs of the more traditional PC users. In any case, as well as the designer needs proper technical knowledge, the (future) owner of the website also needs some basic understanding of the limitations of the technologies involved.

As was discussed in section 1.3 of this thesis, the technologies around the Internet evolve rapidly. At the time Benun wrote her book (2003), the majority of mobile devices were basically laptops that did not significantly differ from workstation PCs. However, ten years is a huge time-span within the computerized world. Nowadays the basic idea of the end user's means of accessing a websites has gained a fair amount of added significance, which manifests itself in the growing number of small mobile devices such as cellular phones and tablets. Achieving a dynamic website and content that would function and display properly with all the modern devices is definitely a challenging task. However, regardless the technical restrictions and platform used to view the contents of the website the intended message of the owner of the site still needs to find a delivery channel through the site. The message and the views are obviously reflected in the long and coherent texts, such as the content texts on subpages of the website (see Appendix 2 for an example of two subpages). However, it should be noted that also the fragmented individual menu items are modified by the message (See Appendix 1 for an example of menus). Even though the simultaneous analysis of such very different lingual entities might be difficult, the next chapter presents a method that can be used to surpass such difficulties.

3 NARRATIVE THEORY

Narrative theory within translation studies was established by the pioneering work of Mona Baker. Baker's (2006: 3) application of narrative theory draws from social and communicative sciences rather than from narratology or linguistics. Therefore the unit of analysis in the theory is a *narrative* which, in essence, does not need to be a singular concrete text. The idea of analysing such narratives has two particularly useful strengths in a study of websites. Firstly, the idea enables the simultaneous analysis of both fragmented and coherent text bodies. Secondly, it can be used to reveal the personal agency behind the analysed narrative (ibid.: 4, 106). Websites tend to have fragmented yet interrelated texts, for example menu items. Also, websites tend to have unified and longer text bodies as their actual content. Inferring the message or the views of the owner of the website from the textual items on the site can be achieved with the help of the narrative theory. In what follows, the grounding factors and features of the narrative theory will be discussed in section 3.1 below. Section 3.2 discusses the (re)framing strategies of narratives which have been used as the main tool in the analysis of this study.

3.1 Narrative theory in translation studies

According to the communicative and social theory of narrative, the whole world is constructed via language, in particular narratives. A narrative does not need to be, for example, a single text, oral utterance, video or a theatre piece. Instead, a narrative can be constructed from various sources. Baker (2006: 4) finds narratives appearing in two layers: firstly, the immediate surface level of a text or an utterance and, secondly, the level beyond the surface. The surface level narrative constitutes the concrete textual entity that is analysed. Beyond the surface lie the implicit narratives which have modified the construction of the surface level narrative. Although those implicit narratives have no apparent textual form they can be reconstructed from the elements of the surface narrative. The narrative levels are illustrated in the short excerpt from the

website of the City of Helsinki (example (3) below) where one finite textual narrative embodies a set of larger narratives (or at least parts of them).

- (3) Helsinki is a dynamic city of culture. Cultural offerings are diverse, and the cultural climate fosters innovation and supports world-leading achievement. (HEL 2013: *Culture and libraries*)

At the surface level the example (3) presents a narrative about the cultural environment of the City of Helsinki. Underneath the surface exists a larger narrative of the prestige in the Western societies: the larger the city the more there should be cultural offerings available. Even further, parts of the very large narratives of “well-being” and “progress” can be found from the background of both, surface and beyond the surface, narratives.

The example (3) above presents yet another useful quality of narratives: they enable the identification of the participants in them. There is always a narrator and an intended reader/hearer for the narrative. Notably all the narratives on the surface level, and beyond it, of an individual narrative item reflect the position of the narrator within other narratives and how the narrator has positioned the reader (Baker 2006: 16). For example, the narrator in the example (3) represents an actor within the Western world who is aware and affected by the Western prestige. Most likely the narrator has aimed the text to another actor within the Western world, or at least to someone who is familiar with it. Otherwise the message of the narrator may become obscured or even completely unintelligible for the reader. In any case, narratives are biased according to the narrator’s position and therefore a narrative cannot be regarded to present the simple “truth” about its subject but only an interpretation of it (ibid.: 17, 19). However, all narratives, whether competing or agreeing with each other, are equal depictions of the world around us in the framework of narrative theory.

The narrative theory acknowledges the existence of several different types of narratives. Baker (2006: 28–48) presents four main types which are *ontological*, *public*, *conceptual (disciplinary)* and *meta/master* narratives. Ontological narratives are the narratives

about the self which we tell directly to ourselves and others. However, ontological narratives are shaped by all the other types of narratives, such as public narratives. (ibid.: 28–32.) Public narratives are stories about larger entities than individuals in societies (ibid.: 33). For example, societies share a common public narrative about the acceptable behaviour within it, which provides a framework for the ontological narratives of an individual.

Another kind of narrative framework is provided by conceptual (or disciplinary) narratives. They include scholarly works such as, for example, this thesis, which is an effort to represent something about the world in an objective and scientific manner. In public discourse conceptual narratives, that is, scientific studies, tend to obtain a status as undisputable “truths” that are used to support new narratives (Baker 2006: 39). An example of the usage of conceptual narratives in an argumentation would be a text beginning with words “according to studies...”. However, often the actual reference to the scientific publication(s) is made even more implicit. For example the claim in the sentence “The Oulu Region [...] is **the fastest growing region** in Finland” (OUKA 2013: *Oulu information*; emphasis added) is presented as based on a statistical study even though the exact reference is not provided. Baker (2006: 42) also notes that conceptual narratives are used especially to support meta-narratives. Meta- or master narratives are the largest (abstract) stories circulating around the world. As examples of meta-narratives Baker (ibid.: 44–45) presents the very large narrative entities of “Cold War” and “progress”. For example, the narrative of “progress” has an effect on everyone in, at least, the Western world. That effect on virtually everyone is one of the requirements for a narrative to become a meta-narrative. Although the meta-narratives have developed from smaller and local (public) narratives, over time they grow functioning in the background of practically every narrative.

There are several features with which the narratives are constructed. Baker (2006: 50–103) introduces four core features: *temporality*, *relationality*, *causal emplotment* and *selective appropriation*. The first two features, temporality and relationality, are related to and are about the narratives themselves. Temporality feature proposes that the sequence of a narrative is always meaningful (ibid.: 50–51). Relationality of narratives

suggests that narratives can never exist in a void without references to other narratives (ibid.: 61). Those two features are an essential presumption for the identification of narratives because an unrelated and meaningless piece of language can not be regarded as a narrative. The latter two features, causal emplotment and selective appropriation, are more about the narrators of narratives. The causal emplotment feature proposes that the narrator intentionally chooses and arranges the facts of an event into a meaningful order (ibid.: 67–71). The selective appropriation feature proposes that the narrator has the ability to choose which facts to present and with what possible linguistic variants (ibid.: 71–76). These latter two features are essential in indicating the existence of agency in narratives. It should be noted that subtle changes in any of the four core features may have dramatic effects on the narrative, which will be the subject of discussion in the following section in this chapter.

3.2 Framing and reframing

This section will discuss the (re)framing of narratives. Firstly, using the compound term *(re)framing* points out the ambiguity in distinction between framing and reframing in the context of the narrative theory. Baker (2006: 106) defines *framing* “as an active strategy that implies agency”. In other words, the narrator (for example a person telling or writing a story) takes a position in relation to the narrated subject by (consciously) choosing words, expressions and intonations in his/her narrative. It is noteworthy that two different narrators may frame the same event in completely opposite ways depending on their own intentions and stance within other (larger) narratives (ibid.: 107). For example, two different translators will most likely ‘narrate’ the same source text differently in their target texts (translations). However, the context of translation is suitable for clarifying the ambiguity in defining the term (re)framing. It would be logical to state that if an original text is *framed*, then a translation of that text is *reframed*. The problem is that the narrative theory in itself argues against anything being completely original and therefore the term reframing would be the choice in both original writing and in translation. Nevertheless, the idea that a source text is framed

and a target text is reframed is used in this paper. Therefore, for example, the Finnish version of a website is considered to be *framed* and the English version of the same site is *reframed*.

There are different strategies with which narratives can be framed (or, of course, reframed). Baker (2006: 112) introduces four key strategies: *temporal & spatial framing, framing through selective appropriation, framing by labelling and repositioning of participants*. These framing strategies are used to modify narratives through their core features (temporality, relationality, causal emplotment and selective appropriation, see section 3.1). The following few paragraphs represent some of the uses of the framing strategies and how they may change the narrative.

Temporal and spatial framing have an effect on, for example, the features of temporality and causal emplotment of narratives. Spatial reframing of a narrative means, for example, that the location or the physical sequence of a narrative is altered. Note that the sequence of a narrative may also be altered with temporal reframing. However, the aim of the reframing is to establish a new context that supports the new narrative (Baker 2006: 112). For example the fact that the City of Helsinki (HEL) is the World Design Capital 2012 is presented differently on the subpages of HEL (2013) website. In the Finnish version the fact is merely a side note at the end of the opening paragraph on the subpage content and the subject is not mentioned again further on the page. On the contrary, the English version highlights the subject by presenting a whole chapter about the honorary biennial designation within the subpage content. Although both versions depict Helsinki in a context of lively cultural climate, the images presented are different through rearranging the information content on the subpages of the language versions.

The strategy of framing through selective appropriation has an effect on the selective appropriation feature of narratives. In practice, the strategy of reframing through selective appropriation means making additions and omissions into the new narrative. The additions and omissions may be done on both the surface level of a narrative (the concrete text) and also in the larger contextual environment by, for example, selecting which texts will be translated and which will be not (Baker 2006: 114). An example of

the strategy of selective appropriation through omission on the textual level can be seen in example (4) below.

- (4) These web sites include information on available services for residents the City of Lappeenranta provides. (LPR 2013: *Services*)

Palvelut-sivustolla on esitelty pääsääntöisesti kaupungin asukkaille **ja yrityksille** tarjoamia palveluita [...]. (LPR 2013: *Palvelut*, emphasis added)

The services site presents the services the city provides mostly for its residents **and businesses** [...]. (Back-translation)

Both language versions in the example state explicitly who are included in the target audiences of the narrative. Notably, the Finnish version provides services for a wider group of people (residents and businesses) than the English version (only residents). Therefore, as the English text provides less information, the presented image of the owner of the site is different.

The last two framing strategies, framing by labelling and repositioning of participants, are closely related to each other. Both of them may have a direct effect on virtually all the four core features of narratives. Repositioning of participants can change, for example, who are “us and them” in the narrative or how visible the narrator or the author’s voice is in a text (Baker 2006: 138–139). The proximities of the participants can be changed for example, with the strategy of framing by labelling, which refers to (re)naming any entity in a narrative (ibid.: 122–132). For example, renaming a menu item “Yliopisto” [University] to “About Us” (items from the UVA [2013] website) has first and foremost an effect on the selective appropriation feature of the narrative. The narrator has chosen to use the item “Yliopisto” [University] in the Finnish version which maintains the impersonal status of the university. However, reframing the item to the “About Us” in the English version personifies the narrator and narrows the distance between the narrator and the reader. The relationship between the participants is more official in the Finnish version than the more casual relationship presented in the English

version. In any case, the image of the owner of the website is altered. The impacts of all the four reframing strategies on the images of the owners of the websites in the material of this study will be presented in the following chapter.

4 FRAMING THE CORE NARRATIVE

This study set forth to examine the effects of localization on websites. The aim was to find out whether the parallel language versions of a website presented differing or similar images of the owner of the site. Furthermore, the possibility of deducting the differences or similarities of the image from the textual content of the menu items on the homepage(s) was examined. The main hypothesis was that the differences or similarities in the menu items on the homepage(s) correlate with the differences or similarities on the content texts on the subpages of the site. An additional aim of the study was to examine patterns that would emerge among categories of similar owners of sites, namely cities and educational institutions. However, no patterns were expected to be found since every website is constructed as an individual project with no relation to other sites. The percentage of foreign population in the city or in the institution was also studied as a possible factor modifying the results.

The data of the study consisted of nine websites owned by Finnish public organizations. The owners of the sites are the Police of Finland, four cities (Helsinki, Jyväskylä, Lappeenranta and Oulu), and four educational institutions (universities of Lappeenranta, Oulu and Vaasa, and Vaasa University of Applied Sciences). The material, that is, narratives, was extracted from the data with the help of my structural model for textual narratives on websites, which I produced particularly for the purposes of this study. The model enabled simultaneous analysis of the main menus of the websites and equivalent pairs of subpage texts on both the Finnish and the English language versions of the sites. The model, which will be presented in section 4.1, was the first of the two methodological discoveries made during the analysis. The second discovery, presented in section 4.2, was the proposal for the expansion of the layered structure of narratives to include not two but three narrative layers. Although both discoveries provided essential preconditions for the main analysis of this study, the two discoveries were only secondary findings in this study.

The primary findings and the main analysis of this study are discussed in section 4.3. The main analysis, presented in section 4.3.1 included the examination of the material for occurrences of four (re)framing strategies of narratives, namely the *temporal and spatial framing*, *framing through selective appropriation*, *framing by labelling* and *framing by repositioning participants*. The analysis revealed that the instances of reframing are numerous but often overlapping. The most common reframing strategy was selective appropriation which, however, usually resulted into occurrences of other reframing strategies. Because of the extensive overlapping of the strategies, collecting accurate statistical data about the uses of the individual strategies became pointless; the statistics would not have added any significant information to the results of the study. Therefore the subsection 4.3.1 concentrates on describing how particular reframing strategies in particular situations modify the image of the owner of the website.

The most common effect of the reframing strategies on the image of the owner of the website was narrowing or expanding the image through the amount of information given. As stated before, the narrowing and the expanding were achieved mostly with the strategy of selective appropriation through addition and omission. Another typical effect on the image was through reframing the connectedness of the participants in the narratives. Various reframing strategies changed, for example, the institutional connections of the owner of the website or how the target audience was related to the owner. However, those results could not have been discussed before discussing the background findings presented in the following two sections of this chapter below.

4.1 The model for identifying textual narratives on a website

This section presents my model for identifying textual narratives on a website. I constructed the model specifically for the purposes of this study but due to its generalized nature it can be used in other studies as well. The model borrows terminology from Sue-Ann Harding's (2012) paper in which she briefly describes how she has used narrative theory in her doctorate studies. Two concepts Harding (*ibid.*:

290, 295–296) introduces in her article are *primary narrative texts* and the *core narrative*. Primary narrative texts constitute concrete textual items in which all the other analysed narratives are embedded. Within a primary narrative exists a core narrative which is the main idea, event, phenomenon or actor of which the narrator(s) of the primary narrative provide their view or views. In the case of institutional websites, the narrator and the core narrative represent the same entity, the owner of the site. I found Harding’s terminology to be useful in constructing the model for the analysis of narratives on websites. The model is presented next within this section, followed by an extended discussion of the details of the model by applying it to the material of this present study.

Two grounding ideas of my model are that, firstly, the core narrative represents the owner of the website. Secondly, any textual entity or parallel entities on a website may be handled, individually or as a group, as primary narratives. The core narrative is most often presented in the (main) title(s) on the homepage of the website and often also on the address of the site. Primary narratives may be delineated from virtually any other textual material on the website. The model can be illustrated as a hierarchical chart as in Figure 4 below.

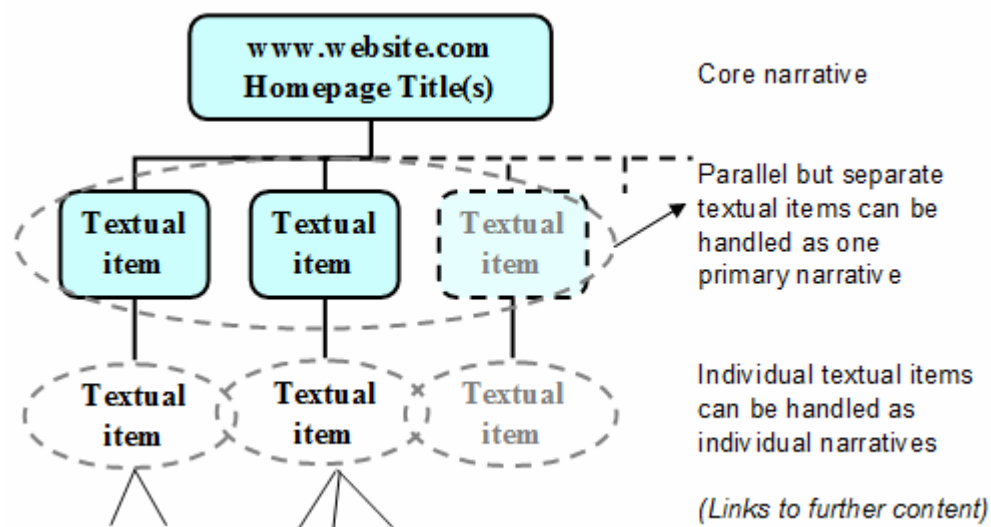


Figure 4. The general model for identifying narratives on a website

The main benefit of my model is that it can be used to unify websites structurally. Therefore it enables comprehensive comparisons of narratives despite physical differences in the layouts of the websites. Also, comparisons within language versions of one website and comparisons between separate websites are possible with the help of my model.

The model in Figure 4 presents two dynamic features that enable applying it to large sets of data. Firstly, the right side of the model is faded because the number of the parallel items depends on the analysed website. There may be, of course, more or less than two or three items depicted in the illustration above. Secondly, the thin lines pointing downwards at the bottom of the figure represent the possible existence (or lack) of further links to other textual items on the website. Each new set of downward links add a consecutive hierarchical level to the model. However, in this study I found it sufficient to concentrate on the first three levels of the model. The top three levels of the chart and their particular features are discussed below with the material of this present study applied to the model.

I chose to analyse two types of primary narratives which are the main menu items and subpage texts of a website. The relations of the core narrative and primary narratives in that particular material applied to the general model can be illustrated as in Figure 5 below.

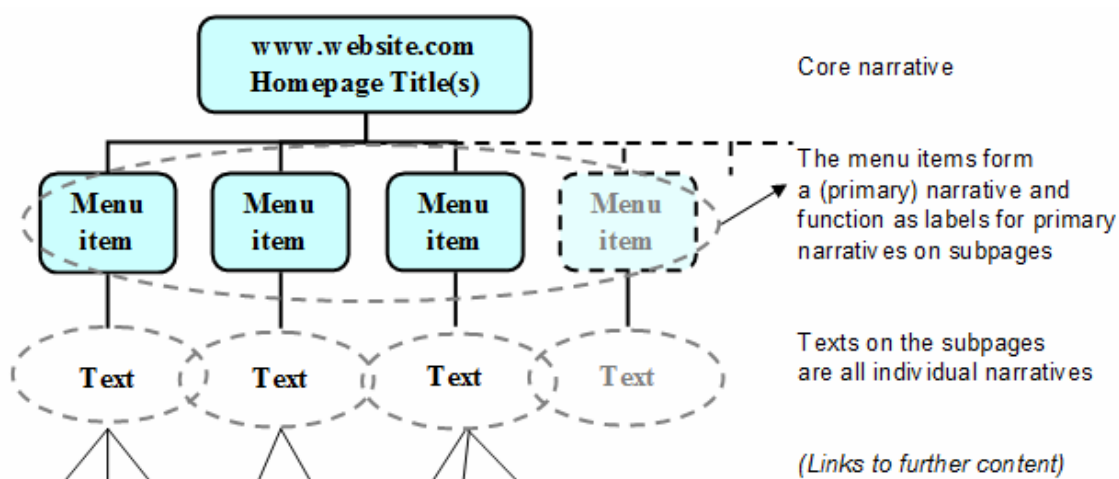


Figure 5. The locations and relations of the material (narratives) of this study on a website

As mentioned earlier, this study concentrates on the first three hierarchical levels of the model. The top level constitutes the core narrative which includes the website address and the title(s) on the homepage of the site. The top level is discussed further with examples in the following few paragraphs below. The second level of the model constitutes the menu items of the static main menu on the homepage of the website. The whole of the menu items form one primary narrative, highlighted with wide grey dashed line in Figure 5. They also function as labels for the primary narratives on the subpages of the website. The textual units on the subpages, the bottom level of the model, are also primary narrative texts, highlighted separately with small grey dashed lines. Further discussion with examples about the second and the third levels of the model is after the discussion about the top level of the model.

The top level of the model of narratives on websites draws the attention to the core narrative. The core narrative represents the website's owner in the form of the website's titles and often also in the address. For example, the address for the website of the City of Lappeenranta is *www.lappeenranta.fi*, in which the name of the owner is explicitly embedded. However, the name of the owner is not visible in the address of the website of the City of Oulu, *www.ouka.fi*. In any case, titles on the homepage of an institutional website usually present the name of the owner of the site. The location of the title(s) is

often on the top of the browser and/or somewhere on the top section of the homepage. An example of the location of the titles and the address is presented in Figure 6 below.



Figure 6. The textual items related to the owner of the website, representing the core narrative (a detail from the homepage of Police of Finland’s website [POL 2013: homepage])

In the example above (Figure 6) the core narrative represents Poliisi (the Police of Finland). *Poliisi* is written on two of the website titles and on the address of the website. Repeating the name of the owner of the website emphasizes that Poliisi represents the core narrative of the website and therefore represents also the main narrator of the website.

The second level of the model of narratives on websites applied to the material of this present study draws the attention to the static main menu of a website. The items that are included in the main menu are the first objects defining broadly the core narrative. In other words, the main menu presents the initial idea of what the website and the

owner of it has to offer for the website user. Therefore the whole of the textual items in the menu form a narrative. The menu items function also as the access points to the third level of the model for narratives on websites. The third level is discussed further below in this section. First, an example of a main menu is presented in Figure 7 below.



Figure 7. The location of the static main menu on the VAMK website (VAMK 2013: *About VAMK*)

In the above example (Figure 7) the main menu of the VAMK website is located on the top section of the page. Generally, the location of the main menu of a website is most often either horizontally across the top section of the site, as is the case in the example above, or vertically on the left side of the site. In any case, in the material of this thesis

the location and the content of the menu were required to remain static within the website when the subpages of the site were accessed. That was to ensure that the primary narrative of the menu remained unchanged.

The requirement for the main menu narrative to remain static delineated certain types of websites outside the data set of this study. An example of a dynamic menu illustrates one possibility of unwanted changes in the menu narrative. As in the illustrations below (Figure 8 and Figure 9) the textual items of the menu do not function as straightforward links to subpages but open a submenu when the pointer is moved over the menu item.

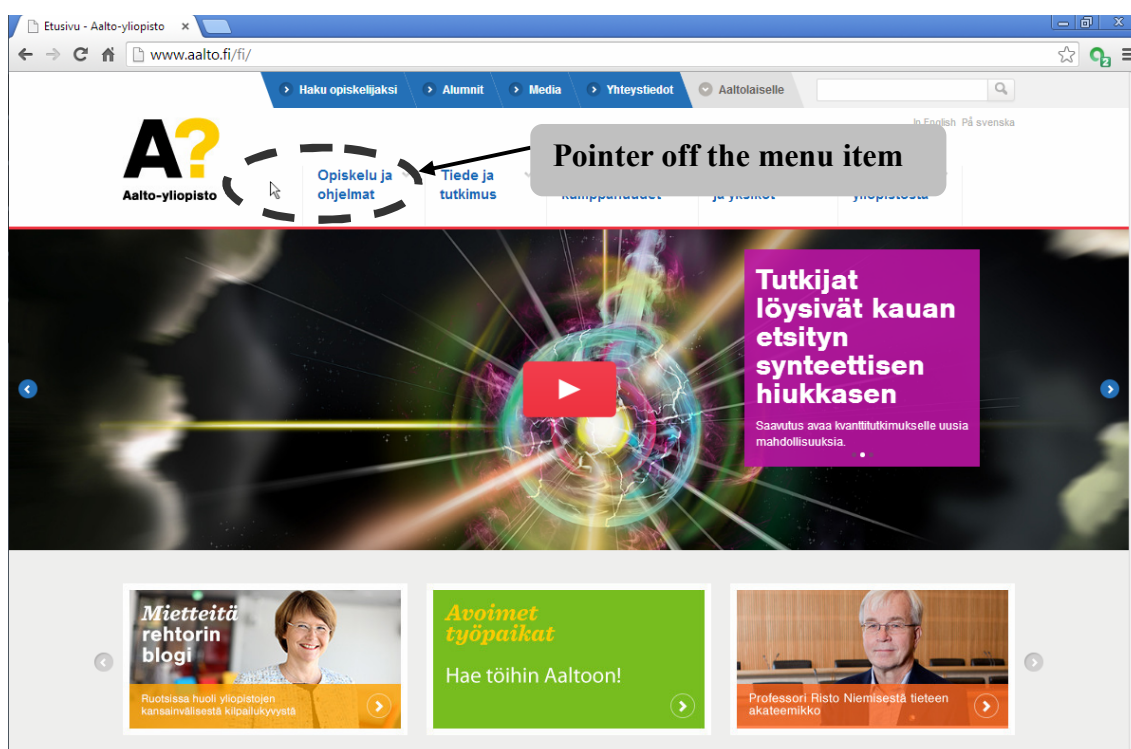


Figure 8. Pointer not on the menu item – no submenu visible (caption of the Finnish homepage of the website of Aalto University, www.aalto.fi, 10.3.2014)

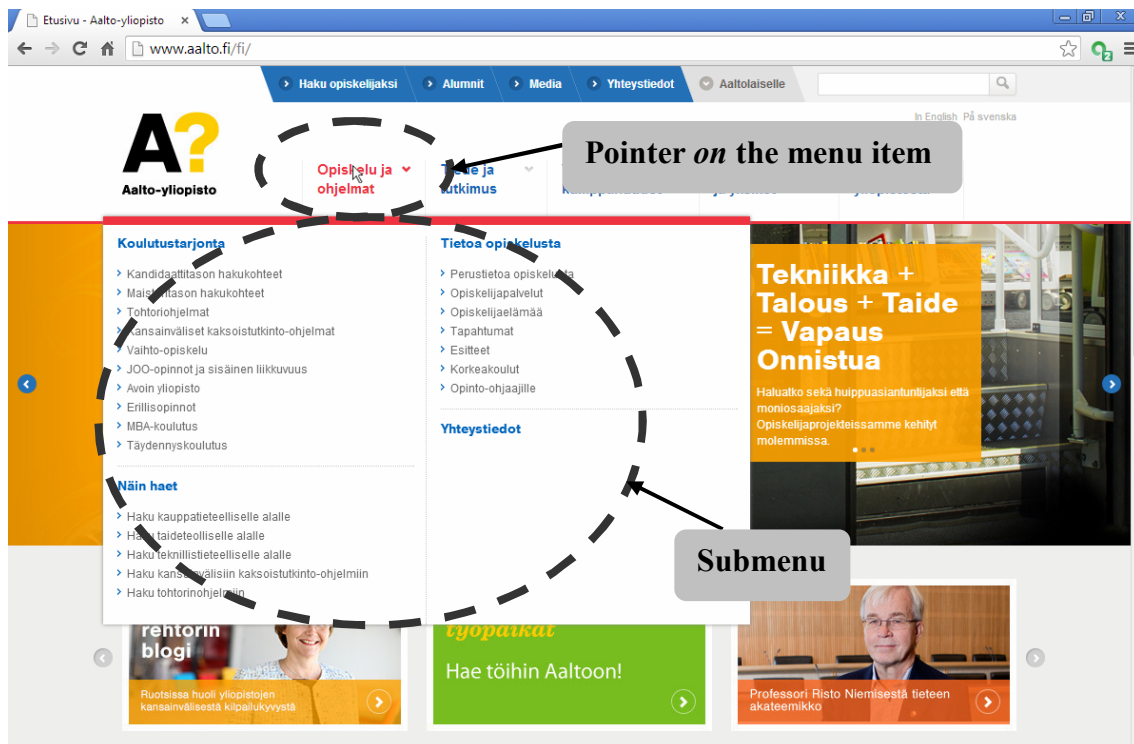


Figure 9. Pointer on the menu item and the subsequent submenu visible (caption of the Finnish homepage of the website of Aalto University, www.aalto.fi, 10.3.2014)

Figure 8 and Figure 9 depict how the main menu of the website of the Aalto University has the function that opens a submenu when the mouse pointer is moved over a menu item. Such menu is not static and the menu narrative is therefore dynamic. As the functionality of the menu did not meet the requirements of this study, the website of the Aalto University could not be included in the data set. However, note that the general model in itself does not exclude dynamic menus from the data set; such delineation is particular only in the data of this study.

The third and last level of the model of narratives on websites applied to the material of this present study draws the attention to the textual content on the subpages of a website. In contrast to the main menu items that define broadly the core narrative, the content text on a subpage defines the core narrative in more depth. A subpage text is a more unified primary narrative of one of the aspects of the core narrative. An example of a subpage text is illustrated in Figure 10 below.



Figure 10. Subpage content text on the VAMK website (VAMK 2013: *About VAMK*)

The subpage in the Figure 10 is a typical subpage in the material of this study. It contains coherent information about one particular topic related to the owner of the website. Also, the subpage can be directly accessed through the main menu. The textual content of the menu, as stated before, has remained the same as it has been on the homepage of the website.

However, it should be noted that not all websites are structured as the websites in my data set. There are websites in which the static main menu items open subpages that do not contain a coherent bulk of text as in Figure 10 above. For example, the subpage content may consist of a set of links that open the actual content and larger bulks of text only thereafter. An example of such subpage is illustrated in Figure 11 below.

The screenshot shows the 'Opiskelu' subpage on the University of Jyväskylä website. The page layout includes a top navigation bar with links for 'HAKIJALLE', 'OPISKELIJALLE', 'ALUMNILLE', 'TUTKIMUS', 'YHTEISTYÖ', 'TYÖPAIKAT', and 'TIEDEKUNNAT JA YKSIKÖT'. A search bar is located in the top right corner. The main content area is divided into several sections:

- Ajankohtaista (News):**
 - JYY juhlii 80-vuotis syntymäpäivään juhlavuorilla 24.-29.3. 03.03.2014
 - Oletko sinä ensi syksyn kv-tutor? Haku käynnissä 3.3.-24.3. 03.03.2014
 - Kevään kandipalauttekerros käynnistyy 03.03.2014
 - University Graduate School publishes dissertation requirements 20.02.2014
 - Fulbright Center: 29.1.2014 informaatiotilaisuuden materiaalit 31.01.2014
 - Practical advice for writing your maturity exam 21.01.2014
- Yhteystiedot (Contact):**
 - Opiskelijapalvelut:** Opiskelijapalvelut, Opintotuki, Kansainväliset palvelut, Työelämäpalvelut
 - Opiskelijapalvelut:** Asiointi 9.00 - 15.00, Puh. 040 805 4339 tai 040 805 4340, opiskelijapalvelut [at] jyu.fi
 - Opintotuki:** Asiointipalvelu 9.00 - 12.00, Puhelinpalveluaika 13.00 - 16.00, Puh. (014) 260 1065, opintotuki [at] jyu.fi, Käyntiosoite: Mattilanniemi 2, Agora, B 331 (käynti sisään Alban puoleisesta päätyövestä)
 - Opintopalvelut:** PL 35, 40014 Jyväskylän yliopisto, fax 014 617 570
- Ohjeet ja lomakkeet (Instructions and forms):**
 - Uudelle opiskelijalle: Opiskelijan opas, Ohjeita uusille opiskelijoille, IT-ohjeet, JYY:n ohjeet
 - Ilmoittautuminen, Osoitteenmuutos, Lomakkeita, Lisää ohjeita ...
- Mitä opiskella? (What to study?):**
 - Lukukaudet
 - Tarjolla olevat kurssit:** Opetusohjelmat, Kesäohjelma, kesäopinnot, Opinto-oppaat, Korppi
 - Pääaineen lisäksi:** Kielioinnot: Kielikeskus, Siiväineopiskelu
 - Opinnot muualla:** Opiskelu ulkomailla, Muissa Suomen yliopistoissa: JOO ja verkostot
- Apua! (Help!):**
 - Opiskelu:** Opinto-ohjaus, Esteetön yliopisto
 - Opintotuki:** Hyvinvointi, Student Life, Yliopistoliiikunta
 - Terveys:** YTHS
 - JYY:** Tasa-arvo
 - Tietokoneet ja tunnukset:** IT-palvelut
 - Vapaa-aika:** ...

Figure 11. A collection of links to further content on a subpage on the University of Jyväskylä website (www.jyu.fi, caption taken 10.3.2014).

There is no bulk of content text on the subpage of the website of the University of Jyväskylä presented in Figure 11. The analysis of a subpage that consists of a set of separate textual items, for example a set of links as in Figure 11 above, would be practically similar to the analysis of the menu items. Within the scope of this study the analysis of such link page would hardly contribute any significant additional information to the findings of the study. Therefore, all the websites in the data set were required to contain larger narrative texts, and to follow the structural model as introduced in Figure 5 at the beginning of this section. The last section of this chapter discusses how the narratives, identified with the model presented in this section, were modified by the (re)framing techniques introduced in section 3.2. However, before the

last section of this chapter, the following section proposes an expansion to the layered structure of narratives.

4.2 Layered structure of narratives expanded

During the analysis of the material I noticed that it is useful to identify not two but three layers of narratives in the unit of analysis. As was discussed in section 3.1, the immediate surface level of the unit of analysis consists of a concrete text that Baker (2006: 4) calls *local narrative* and Harding (2012: 296) *primary narrative*. On the one hand, Baker (2006: 4) only acknowledges that beyond the surface level there is the “broader set of narratives”. On the other hand, Harding (2012: 296–301) presents various narratological approaches, for example anachronies, retroversions and actors, to examine different entities both on and beyond the initial surface level of the primary narrative. However, those initial ideas by Baker and Harding are not overlooked but encompassed in my idea of three layers in the unit of analysis of narrative theory in translation studies. My proposition of the layered structure of narratives can be illustrated as in Figure 12.



Figure 12. Layered structure of the unit of analysis in narrative theory

The top of the figure represents with a solid line the concrete text (local/primary narrative) that is analysed in a study of narratives. Below the surface-level exists the

sub-level, illustrated with a dashed-line. The sub-level encompasses the first narratives and narrative elements below the surface-level narrative. For example, a single utterance like “The Oulu Region also has a lively cultural climate” (OUKA 2013: *Oulu-information*) has two distinct public narratives: the one that states explicitly something about the cultural climate in the Oulu Region at the surface-level and the other that states implicitly on the sub-level that “the more cultural offerings in a (Western) city the better” (see also the discussion in section 3.1, example (3)). Yet, in the background of both of those public narratives lie the master-narrative of, for example, “progress” and/or “well-being”. Therefore the bottom of the Figure 12 is reserved for representing the most abstract level of largest narratives which is quintessentially the level of meta-narratives (hence named meta-level).

The benefit of expanding the levels in the unit of analysis is the possibility to identify and discuss with more ease the separate narratives in one analysed unit. With the help of the three-layered model, comparisons between, for example, separate surface-level public narratives and separate sub-level public narratives can be made more comprehensively. Although, when examining a surface-narrative, it is possible to discard the existence of either of the sub- or meta-level. For example, there is no need to discuss the sub-level narratives if the purpose of the analysis is to examine the direct impact of a meta-narrative on the surface-narrative. In any case, the use of all three levels is, of course, dependent on the purposes of the research at hand. This present study, however, applies the three-layered concept and terminology in the main analysis represented in the following section.

4.3 Primary findings

This section presents the primary findings of the analysis of this study. The primary findings provide answers to the research question and to the hypotheses. The answers are dealt with the terminology and concepts introduced in the previous two sections of this chapter which presented the secondary findings of this study. The discussion of the

primary findings is divided into three subsections. The first subsection discusses thoroughly the instances of the reframing strategies in the material and their effects on the images of the owners of the websites. After the analysis of the reframing strategies, the material was categorized into a rough scale of identical–similar–different. The categorization is presented in subsection 4.3.2. The last subsection at the end of this section presents the comparisons and the findings made on the basis of the results of the analyses presented on the preceding two subsections.

4.3.1 The effects of reframing on the image of the owner of a website

The most common reframing strategy in the material of this study was selective appropriation. Selective appropriation was used with variations of omitting and adding words, sentences and whole passages of text. The strategy and its effect on the surface-level of a narrative are illustrated with an example from the menu of the website of the city of Lappeenranta (Table 1 below).

Table 1. Menu items of LPR (2013, emphasis added)

English	Finnish	Back-translation
SERVICES	PALVELUT	SERVICES
TRAVEL	HALLINTO	ADMINISTRATION
BUSINESS	MATKAILU	TRAVEL
	YRITYKSET	BUSINESS

In Table 1 the menu item *Hallinto* (*Administration*) is omitted from the English version of the website. Therefore, for the foreign reader the amount of information is more restricted than for the Finnish reader. The omission of information in the material narrowed the image of the owner of the site.

Another typical instance of the strategy of selective appropriation in the material was when the surface-level narratives were different but sub-level narratives similar. The following example (5) illustrates the phenomenon.

- (5) The University of Jyväskylä is home to Finland's first Faculty of Information Technology (JKL 2013: *Studying*)

[T]änne on perustettu maan ensimmäinen suomenkielinen oppikoulu (JKL 2013: *Opetus ja koulutus*)

The first Finnish language secondary grammar school in Finland was established here (in Jyväskylä) (Back-translation)

The sub-level public narrative in both language versions in the example (5) provides information about the status of Jyväskylä as the forerunner in educational services in Finland. However, the surface-level public narratives are (re)framed by selective appropriation to present different aspects of the same sub-level narrative. In such cases the effect on the image of the owner is relatively complex since the given information only presents different viewpoints to the same general subject. However, as the described phenomenon above comprises differing surface-level narratives, there can be identified other types of reframing strategies that have a more direct effect on the image of the owner than the broader scale selective appropriation.

As stated before, the reframing strategies were often found overlapping in the material of this study. The following example (6) could be regarded as an instance of selective appropriation through addition but, however, in this study it was considered to be an instance of reframing by labelling.

- (6) Multidisciplinary, **multilingual** and international (VAMK 2013: *About VAMK*, emphasis added)

Monialainen ja kansainvälinen (VAMK 2013: *VAMK – Monialainen ja kansainvälinen*)

Multidisciplinary and international (Back-translation)

The reason for considering the above example as an instance of reframing by labelling was due to the status of the lines within the web page context: they are subpage

headings that describe straightforwardly the core narrative (VAMK). Therefore, as the English heading labels VAMK with three adjectives as opposed to the Finnish heading with only two adjectives, the narrator has enlarged the image of the owner in the English version of the website through the amount of information.

Although the core narrative was most often reframed by labelling in headings, as in the previous example, the strategy of labelling was also used in other types of textual environments. Example (7) below illustrates how the strategy of reframing by labelling is used within sentences describing the City of Oulu.

- (7) The City of Oulu is **the capital of northern Finland**. (OUKA 2013: *Oulu Information*, emphasis added)

Oulun kaupunkiseutu on **Suomen pohjoinen metropolialue ja Skandinavian pohjoisten alueiden suurin keskus**. (OUKA 2013: *Oulutietoa*, emphasis added)

The city district of Oulu is **the northern metropolitan area of Finland and the greatest hub of the northern territories of Scandinavia**. (Back-translation)

The core narrative (OUKA) is explicitly labelled differently in the noun phrases in example (7). In the English version the narrator has heightened the City of Oulu to compete with the status of Helsinki, the capital city of Finland. As Helsinki is in the Southern Finland and Oulu in the Northern Finland, the opposition between the two locations within the country is apparent. Notably, however, the Finnish version does not build a distinct opposition with any other city but accentuates the status of Oulu within the whole northern Scandinavia⁵. Therefore, in this case the labelling has modified first and foremost the imagery of the connections of the City of Oulu.

⁵ The northern Scandinavia comprises the northern areas of three separate countries, Finland, Sweden and Norway.

The connectedness of the owner of the website was one of the often reframed aspects defining the image of the owner. The following example (8) illustrates the institutional and corporate connections of VAMK.

- (8) VAMK has an extensive co-operation network with universities and other educational and research institutions abroad, as well as in Finland. (VAMK 2013: *About VAMK*)

Vahvuuksiamme ovat energiateknologian ja kansainvälisen liiketoiminnan osaaminen kiinteässä yhteistyössä alueen työelämään. (VAMK 2013: *VAMK – Monialainen ja kansainvälinen*)

Our strengths are the energy technology and international business with solid co-operation with the local commerce. (Back-translation)

The Finnish version connects VAMK to the local businesses whereas the English version highlights VAMK's connections with educational institutions abroad and in Finland. However, it was not only the institutional connectedness, such as in the example above, that reflected a trend that presents an image of the owner of the website as an actor in an international environment in the English version and in the Finnish version as a local actor. Also the imagery of the participants and their connections in the narratives were often divided between an internationally connected audience in the English version and a locally connected audience in the Finnish version. However, the trend did not form a consistent pattern throughout the material since the website of LPR (2013) provided an exception by presenting information only to the local people on both of the language versions of their website.

The connections and positioning of the participants in the narratives varied between the language versions of the websites. Firstly, the narrator, that is, the owner of the website, was often repositioned between the language versions. Secondly, also the audiences were often positioned differently. An example from the VAMK (2013) menu illustrates the different positions of both the narrator and the audience.

Table 2. Menu items of VAMK (2013, emphasis added)

English	Finnish	Back-translation
Living in Vaasa and Finland	VAMK – Monialainen ja kansainvälinen	VAMK – Multidisciplinary and international
About VAMK	Tutkimus-, kehitys- ja innovaatiotoiminta	Research, development and innovation practices
Prospective Degree Students	VAMK Yourself – Hae nuorten koulutukseen	VAMK Yourself – Admissions for prospective students
Student Exchange	VAMK Yourself – Hae aikuiskoulutukseen	VAMK Yourself – Admissions for adult education
Open Studies		
Research, Development and Innovation		

The addition of the item, and subsequent subpage, *Living in Vaasa and Finland* is designed for an audience living outside the country of Finland. Obviously, both the narrator's position towards the audiences and also the narrator's expectations about the audiences are different between the two language versions. The repositioning of the participants has initially an effect on the sub-level narratives, but also the surface-level narratives which lead to the occurrences of other reframing strategies. For example, in the surface-narrative of the English version in Table 2 the strategy of selective appropriation through addition is used. Therefore it is difficult to differentiate which particular strategy modifies most the image of the owner in this, and any such case, where many strategies are in use. However, almost any instance of reframing in the material of this study modified the positioning of the participants of the narrative and therefore added in the shaping of different images of the owner.

One last example presents the effects of temporal and spatial reframing in the material. Although the following excerpt presents, again, an instance of selective appropriation through addition (the text is added to the English version) and repositions the participants, it is also a good example of spatial reframing.

- (9) VAMK has two campuses, one in Palosaari – the sea side campus, and one on Raastuvankatu right in the heart of the city centre. Both campuses are easily reached and only 1,5 kilometres from each other. (VAMK 2013: *About VAMK*)

The temporal reframing in the above example occurs in the form of binding the institution to a specific locale or locales. The text in the English version of VAMK (2013) describes the locations of VAMK campuses within the city of Vaasa whereas the Finnish version does not. Through the spatial reframing the core narrative becomes a more concrete entity to the international audience. Also the (spatial) connectedness of the VAMK narrative is more detailed in the above example. The image of a concrete institution in a real city is more elaborate for the international audience of the VAMK (2013) website. With this closing example the presentations of the overlapping reframing strategies that have directly and indirectly modified the image of the owner of a website end. However, the analysis has yielded various fruitful results which will be the basis of the discussion in the following two subsections.

4.3.2 Broad scaling of the material

After the analysis of the reframing strategies, the material, both menu items and subpage texts separately, was divided into a broad scale of identical–similar–different. The following subsection presents examples of the categorization through short excerpts. However, the narratives in the actual scaling were examined as complete and undivided primary narratives as presented with my model in section 4.1. Therefore there were no difficulties in scaling the material since the overall nature of the primary narratives was relatively easy to recognize. The final results of the scaling were as follows: 7/9 of the menus were *similar* and 2/9 of the menus were *different*. On 6/9 subpages the content was *different* and on 3/9 subpages the content was *identical*.

The material was considered *identical* if there were no changes whatsoever in any of the three levels of narratives. In other words, no instances of reframing strategies were

found. An excerpt from the subpages of the University of Vaasa illustrates an identical content.

- (10) The University of Vaasa educates responsible leaders and experts for international assignments (UVA 2013: *About Us*)

Vaasan yliopisto kouluttaa vastuullisia johtajia ja asiantuntijoita kansainvälisiin tehtäviin. (UVA 2013: *Yliopisto*)

The University of Vaasa educates responsible leaders and experts for international assignments (Back-translation)

Notably the identical material was most often practically literal word-for-word translation as in the example (10) above. There is no difference in how the narrator depicts the core narrative in either language version and therefore the image of the owner remains the same.

The material that was on the surface-level more than approximately 50 % similar but not completely identical was categorized in the scale as *similar* content. The topic items of the University of Oulu website in Table 3 illustrate a typical sample of material that was similar.

Table 3. The similar topic items of the University of Oulu (OUY 2013)

English	Finnish	Back-translation
ADMISSIONS	HAE OPISKELIJAKSI	ADMISSIONS
STUDYING	OPISKELU	STUDYING
RESEARCH	TUTKIMUS	RESEARCH
	YHTEISTYÖ	COOPERATION

The first three items in Table 3 are practically identical but the fourth item in the Finnish version is omitted from the English version. One or two instances of selective appropriation through omission in the menus of the English versions were the usual reason for categorizing the menus similar instead of identical.

The material was considered *different* if at least approximately more than 50 % of the surface-level narratives between the language versions were different. The following example is the ending sentences of the content texts on the subpages presenting the subject of education in the city of Jyväskylä.

- (11) On the whole, the education given in Jyväskylä is characterised by a keen awareness of what the future will demand. (JKL 2013: *Studying*)

Jyväskylässä on mahdollisuus laadukkaaseen opiskeluun ja itsensä kouluttamiseen läpi elämän! (JKL 2013: *Opetus ja koulutus*)

In Jyväskylä one has the opportunity for high quality studies and possibility of acquiring lifelong education! (Back-translation)

The surface-level narrative of the English version in the example (11) defines the quality of education in the city of Jyväskylä. On the contrary, the surface-level narrative in the Finnish version concentrates on marketing the city of Jyväskylä through the overall educational possibilities in the city. Although the 50 % difference was required to be only on the surface-level, in this example also the sub-level narratives are different. The sub-level public narrative of the English version is presented from the point of view of the narrator; “we actively develop our educational system for the needs of the future”. However, in the Finnish version the point of view in the sub-level narrative is on the reader; “you can satisfy all your educational needs in Jyväskylä”. The overall findings of the scaling were used in the further comparisons of the material, presented in the following subsection.

4.3.3 Comparisons between language versions and groups of institutions

This subsection presents the various comparisons made on the basis of the main analysis and the scaling of the material, presented in the previous two subsections. Firstly in this subsection, the comparisons between the language versions of the material (intra-website comparisons) are discussed. The purpose of the intra-website comparisons was to examine whether the differences or similarities in the subpage contents could be

deducted from the differences and similarities in the menus. Secondly, the comparisons within the groups of websites, cities and educational institutions, are discussed. The purpose of the group comparisons was to investigate the existence of tendencies within similar owners of websites.

The detailed analysis of the reframing strategies combined with the broad scaling of the material indicated that there were no overall patterns implying similarities or differences in the menu item narratives and in the subpage narratives. In other words, if, for example, the menu narrative was reframed by labelling, nothing indicated that the same strategy would be used in the subpage texts. Additionally, as there were no identical menus in the material, the identical content in 3/9 subpages (LUT, POL, and UVA) could not be deducted from the menus. However, the results of the scaling included one possibility for partial confirmation of the hypothesis: the 2/9 websites (JKL and VAMK) with differences in the menu narratives included also differences on the subpage narratives. Although even on those two cases there was no correlation whatsoever between the particular reframing strategies used on the menus and on the subpage texts. Therefore, in conclusion, the main hypothesis of this study was proven to be false, except in the case of clearly different language versions of a website.

The additional hypothesis regarding the lack of patterns within the groups of websites, namely the websites of cities and the educational institutions, was also proven false. On the one hand, the cities (JKL, OUKA, LPR, and HEL) tended to represent their images more likely differently than similarly on their websites. On the other hand, there was no pattern how the images of the educational institutions (OUY, LUT, UVA and VAMK) are represented on their websites. Although no more indications of any kind of patterns of, for example, group-related reframing strategies could be found within this material, the abovementioned pattern among the group of cities was sufficient to disprove the hypothesis.

Finally, the percentages of the foreign populations were compared within the material and the overall results of the analysis. Curiously enough, a pattern emerged from the gathered data. First, the material was indexed with 0 indicating that the menu and the

subpage content between language versions of a website were both different, 1 indicating similar menus but different content, and 2 indicating similar menus and identical content. Even though the indexing has only 3 sets, it covered all of the websites in the material. Furthermore, the indexes correlated with three distinct ranges of percentages. Firstly, within the +/- 1,1 percentage point deviation from the national average of 5,2 %, represented by POL website, the websites clearly favoured the index type 2 (similar menus and identical content). Secondly, the website menus were similar but the contents were different between 1,1–2,6 percentage point deviation from the national average (index type 1). Lastly, with more than 2,6 percentage point deviation, both the menus and the contents were different on the websites (index type 0). The pattern becomes more visible when the data is arranged into a table (Table 4 below).

Table 4. The correlation between the percentage of foreign population and indexed types of websites

Organization	English population (%)	Index number
JKL	2	0
OUY	2,9	1
OUKA	3,3	1
LPR	3,7	1
LUT	4,1	2
POL	5,2	2
UVA	6,2	2
HEL	7,6	1
VAMK	11,8	0

The pattern is, in short, that the closer the foreign population is to the national average, the more likely the institutional website is to present an (almost) identical image of the owner of the site. And vice versa, growing deviation from the average indicates growing differences on the website. However, even if the differences seem to grow linearly, the result possesses no indication whatsoever about the reframing strategies used on the websites. In other words, there is no pattern that some particular textual items would be changed with a particular reframing strategy at some particular point on the percentage scale. With this closing statement, the analysis part of this thesis ends here and the following chapter represents the final conclusions and the conclusion of this thesis.

5 CONCLUSIONS

The main hypothesis of this study was that the changes or similarities in the image of the owner of a website on the subpages of the localized language versions of the site could be deduced from the main menus of the site. The hypothesis was based on the assumption that every lingual item on the site is modified according to the message of the owner of the site. In order to examine the image of the owner of a website, the data of 9 Finnish websites was collected from two main categories, cities and educational institutions with the addition of the website of the Finnish Police. The Police represented an average of the whole of Finland. The material extracted from the data included the main menus and two parallel subpage texts from both the Finnish and English language versions of each website. The material was treated as narratives that were examined for occurrences of reframing strategies. The reframing strategies were compared between the language versions within one website and within the fore-mentioned categories of websites, namely cities and educational institutions. Also, any correlations emerging from the percentages of the foreign population within the institution or city were examined. However, as an additional hypothesis, no patterns or correlations whatsoever were expected to be found since every website is constructed as an individual project without relations to other websites.

In order to study the websites with various different layouts and functionalities, I constructed a unifying model for the analysis of textual narratives on websites. Additionally, the narratives were examined within the scope of my own proposition of three narrative layers in the narrative unit of analysis. I named the layers in my proposition *surface-level*, *sub-level* and *meta-level* of a narrative. The surface-level included the concrete textual entities of the analysis and the consecutive layers were abstractions inferred from it. Using the concept of three narrative levels and the fore-mentioned model for the textual narratives on websites I was able to determine that the selective appropriation through omission and addition was the most often used reframing strategy on the websites. The strategy of selective appropriation was used both on the surface- and the sub-level narratives. Although, I noticed that when the

selective appropriation was used to reframe the surface-narratives of identical sub-level narratives, the effect of that particular reframing strategy on the image of the owner became ambiguous. However, such cases led to the emerging of other types of reframing strategies which in turn had more straightforward effects on the image. The most common effect of any reframing strategy on the image of the owner of the website was narrowing or expanding the image through the amount of information given. Another common effect of the reframing strategies was altering the connectedness and the relations of the owner of the website.

In general, the study provided various results with which, for example, the hypotheses could be tested. Firstly, examining the reframing strategies and their effects on the image of the owner of the website indicated that the main hypothesis of this study was mostly false. The negative result was confirmed with categorizing the studied material into a broad scale of identical–similar–different. The scaling showed that the similarities in the menus and the content texts cannot be deducted from the main menu narratives, except in the cases where both, the menus and the content texts, are different. Secondly, the scaling of the material helped also to conduct the comparisons in the last phase of the analysis and test the additional hypothesis. The scaling proved that also the additional hypothesis was partially false since there was a tendency that the cities consistently favoured differing images of the owner of the site. Lastly, the examination of the percentages of foreign populations at the end of the analysis revealed an interesting pattern. The pattern indicated that the overall differences on the website grow alongside the growing deviation from the national average percentage of the foreign population.

The analysis presented in subsection 4.3.1 provided the answer to the research question of this thesis: the localization does have an effect (or effects) on the image of the owner of a website. In the beginning of the thesis was suggested that the image of the owner might be different on localized language versions of a website instead of the original intuition of them being (always) similar. However, the study revealed that the presentation of the owner of a website is neither similar nor different but that the presentations vary from identical to different. That result being revealed, new questions

for future studies arise. Firstly, are there particular trends how the updating modifies the image of the owner of the website? In other words, does the representation of the image remain the same throughout updates or will it be changed? Secondly, are the users of the website able to influence the representation of the image through feedback systems? As stated in the introduction of this thesis, the Internet can be used as a dialogic medium in which, for example, giving direct feedback is relatively easy.

In the beginning of this paper was also stated that the website owner's views about the target audiences are coded into every lingual item of the site, and that the lingual choices correlate with the image of the owner of the website. The results of the study, however, argue against both of those statements. Especially the fact that neither of the hypotheses could be fully confirmed indicate that when the chosen lingual items on websites are examined with the methods presented in this study, the correlations do not occur as expected. Most likely, examining both the menu items and the content texts as equals in the material result to the findings against the two statements. In other words, if the "lingual items" referred only to the content texts, the findings might be in line with the statements and the hypotheses. However, undeniably the content texts represent only a part of the lingual items on websites and therefore the original statements should be revised accordingly.

Though, it should be noted that in general the material of this thesis represents a state that was artificially fixed. Firstly, as was discussed in section 1.3 of this thesis, the whole Internet is a rapidly evolving entity. As a good example, some of the websites that were used and originally planned to be used as the data and the material of this thesis have already been updated during the writing process of this paper. Therefore, conducting the same study again with the same data set might yield different results, or might not be possible altogether. Secondly, the percentages of the foreign populations change over time. Therefore, it would be interesting to see if the pattern between the indexed types of websites and the corresponding percentages would emerge again at some other point in time. Also, the existence of the pattern should be tested with a broader set of data, for example by including more language versions to the data.

Though, it would be altogether interesting to see if and how the overall results of the study change with the material extended to the other language versions of the websites.

In any case, this study has shown that the narrative theory within the field of translation studies suits to a study of website localization. As the narrative theory is still fairly new area within translation studies, the methods and terminology have not yet been fully stabilized. Therefore, hopefully, this thesis will contribute to the public narrative of the narrative theory itself. Especially, it would be pleasing to see that the two methodological discoveries, the model for identifying textual narratives on websites and the layered structure of narratives, would be applied to other types of data sets and developed further. Additionally, this study of websites and their localization, hopefully, has contributed to the general awareness of the uses of language on websites, and further added to the critical interpretation of online contents.

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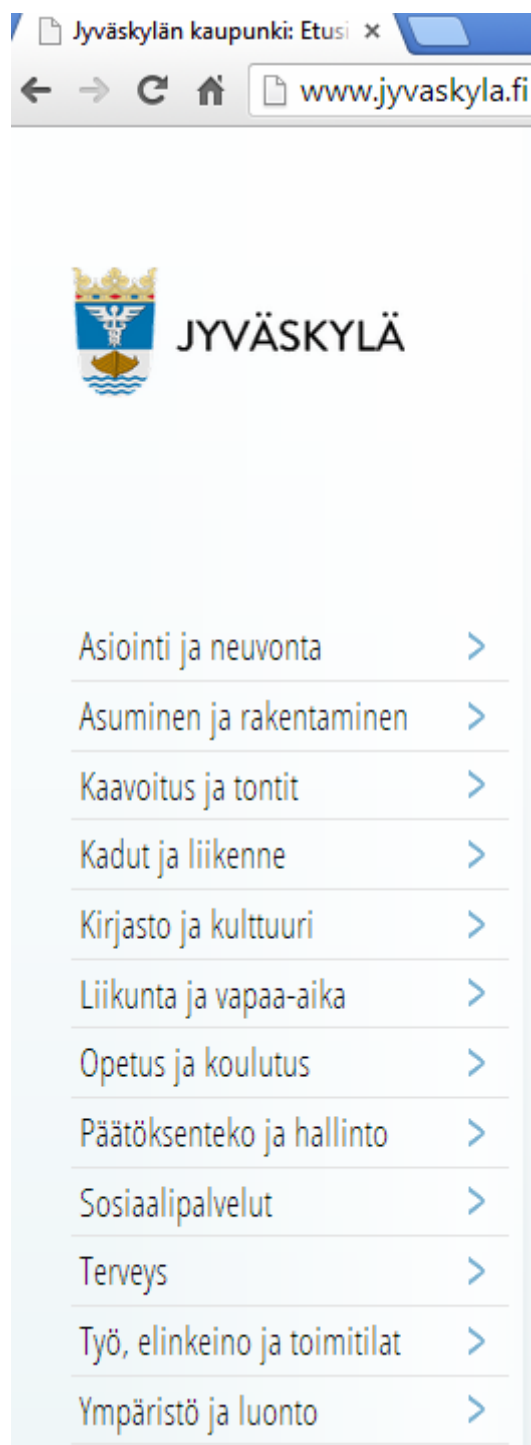
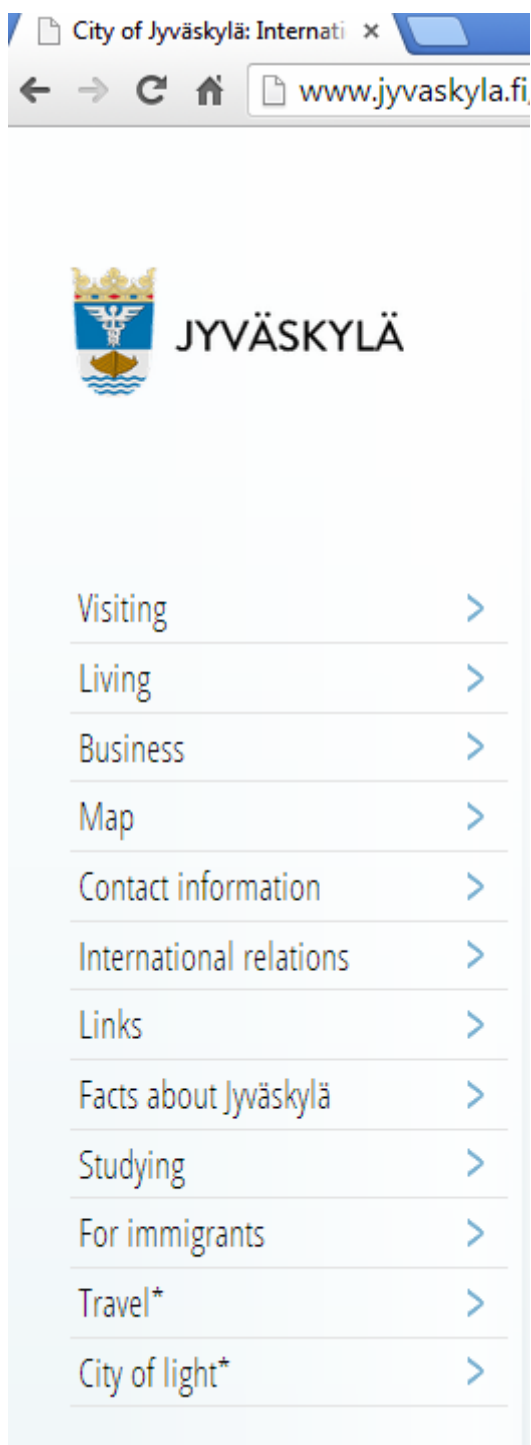
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Appendix 1. Menu items of www.jkl.fi



Appendix 2. Excerpts of the subpages (English and Finnish) of www.hel.fi

Culture and libraries

www.hel.fi/hki/Helsinki/en/Services/Culture+and+libraries

Hel.fi-front page > Services > Culture and libraries >

- Transport and maps
- Housing and the environment
- Planning and construction
- Culture and libraries
- Day care and education
- Sports
- Tourism and leisure
- Social and health services
- Work and entrepreneurship
- Services by resident groups
- Decision-making
- Participation
- City administration and economy
- Departments
- Information on Helsinki
- Contacts and feedback

Culture and libraries Listen

A city of culture

Helsinki is a dynamic city of culture. Cultural offerings are diverse, and the cultural climate fosters innovation and supports world-leading achievement.

The city has rich architectural layers. It offers residents and visitors a variety and frequent musical performances from classical to popular. A dozen professional theatre and dance companies offer performances ranging from classical masterpieces to contemporary. Close to a hundred museums have something for everybody, from art to excitement for children.

The City of Helsinki is an active supporter of art and culture. The City is the second biggest financier of culture in Finland. Culture plays an important role in the City's strategy, policies and decision making.

The City of Helsinki's cultural activities are administered by the Cultural Office, which promotes art, culture and creativity. The office supports culture with grants, and it produces cultural activities at its many venues by itself and in cooperation with other organizers. The activities include arts education.

World Design Capital Helsinki 2012

Helsinki is World Design Capital in 2012, so designated by the International Council of Societies of Industrial Design (ICSID).

World Design Capital is a biennial designation given to one city at a time. It is a city promotion project that celebrates the accomplishments of cities which have used design as a tool to reinvent themselves and to improve social, cultural and economic life.

Main menu

An excerpt of the content text

Kulttuuri ja kirjastot

www.hel.fi/hki/Helsinki/fi/Palvelut/Kulttuuri+ja+kirjastot

Mobiili | Pá svenska | In English | Auf Deutsch | En français | По-русски

Helsingin kaupunki

Hel.fi-etusivu > Palvelut > Kulttuuri ja kirjastot >


- Kartat ja liikenne
- Asuminen ja ympäristö
- Kaavoitus ja rakentaminen
- Kulttuuri ja kirjastot**
- Päivähoito ja koulutus
- Liikunta ja ulkoilu
- Matkailu ja vapaa-aika
- Sosiaali- ja terveystalvet
- Työ ja yrittäminen
- Palveluja kaupunginosittain
- Palveluja asukasryhmittäin
- Päätöksenteko
- Osallistuminen
- Hallinto ja talous
- Kirjastot ja laitokset
- Tietoa Helsingistä
- Yhteystiedot ja palaute

Main menu

An excerpt of the content text

Kulttuuri ja kirjastot

Kuuntele



me


Tanssia, tarinoita, taidetta, tietoa

Kulttuuritarjonta teattereineen, orkestereineen, elokuvineen ja vaikkapa tanssiesityksineen on Helsingissä hyvin laajaa. Kaupungissa voi myös käydä yli 50 festivaalilla ja ihaila mennyttä aikaa museoissa. Kirjasto tarjoaa tietoa kirjoina sekä verkossa.

[Kulttuuritapahtumien hausta](#) ja [kulttuurikeskuksen tapahtumahausta](#) löytyy tietoa kaupungin laajasta kulttuuriannista. Esimerkiksi [festivaaleja](#) järjestetään vuosittain yli viisikymmentä. Helsinki on myös [vuoden 2012 designpääkaupunki](#).

Musiikki ja tanssi

Musiikin huippunimiä ovat [Helsingin kaupunginorkesteri](#) ja [Radion sinfoniaorkesteri](#). Näiden ohella kaupunki tarjoaa lukuisan määrän sointuvia esityksiä



Appendix 3. Analysed subpages

City of Helsinki (HEL)

Culture and libraries. <http://www.hel.fi/hki/Helsinki/en/Services/Culture+and+libraries>

Kulttuuri ja kirjastot. <http://www.hel.fi/hki/Helsinki/fi/Palvelut/Kulttuuri+ja+kirjastot>

City of Jyväskylä (JKL)

Studying. <http://www.jkl.fi/lang/english/studying>

Opetus ja koulutus. http://www.jkl.fi/opetus_ja_koulutus

City of Lappeenranta (LPR)

Services. http://www.lappeenranta.fi/In_English/Services.iw3

Palvelut. <http://www.lappeenranta.fi/Suomeksi/Palvelut.iw3>

City of Oulu (OUKA)

Oulu Information. <http://www.ouka.fi/oulu/english/oulu-information>

Oulu-tietoa. <http://www.ouka.fi/oulu/oulu-tietoa>

Lappeenranta University of Technology (LUT)

Get To Know Us. <http://www.lut.fi/web/en/get-to-know-us>

Tutustu meihin. <http://www.lut.fi/tutustu-meihin>

University of Oulu (OUY)

Admissions. <http://www.oulu.fi/english/admissions>

Hae opiskelijaksi. <http://www.oulu.fi/yliopisto/haeopiskelijaksi>

University of Vaasa (UVA)

About Us. <http://www.uva.fi/en/about/>

Yliopisto. <http://www.uva.fi/fi/about/>

Vaasa University of Applied Sciences (VAMK)

About VAMK. <http://www.puv.fi/en/about/>

VAMK – Monialainen ja kansainvälinen. <http://www.puv.fi/fi/about/>

Finnish Police (POL)

Public Order. <http://www.poliisi.fi/poliisi/home.nsf/pages/F7926FE712C2E22FC2256DF90029E04F?opendocument>

Järjestys. <http://www.poliisi.fi/poliisi/home.nsf/pages/D8319C93780115A5C2256B81004CA354?opendocument>